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Home Economics in the Public Schools of Indiana

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For twenty years the State of Indiana has legally recognized home economics as part of the elementary school curriculum. Following the passage of the state law of 1913, the state again set its mark of approval on the subject in 1918 by accepting the plans for teaching home economics under the Federal Vocational Act, extending the curriculum to both junior and senior high school classes. Today, according to Indiana statutes, two years of home making shall be taught in the grades, one year must be offered in high school, and more advanced courses may be given in senior high school. This affords every girl an opportunity to enter into some of the home making activities that will probably later in life occupy the greater part of her time and interest.

The public is appraising the work offered by the public schools today to see what can be eliminated as frills and nonessential, and what must be kept. Contents of courses are being re-evaluated to determine to what extent social and economic conditions are being considered. In this re-evaluation, the home making courses come in for a wolf's share, and in this rapidly changing civilization the home economics teacher is ever on the alert, and the courses that she offers are constantly under revision as the emphasis shifts in life's activities. Home economics subject matter must be adjusted to the interest of the times and to the needs of the pupils today.

The degree of accomplishment of any program is dependent upon the ability, personality, and training of the teacher; hence no two schools can be expected actually to reach the same goal; no two students may have exactly the same visions and skills; yet each may reach her respective level. No home economics program is justified which does not assist the individual student in comprehending more clearly her relation to home and family and to society. It is intended to set up family ideals and to develop satisfactory relationships. Laboratory experiences and material things are important in the course, but as such should not be allowed to predominate. They should be used in establishing ideals and in formulating a satisfactory philosophy for living.

The definition of education as set forth in the Cardinal Principles of Education[1] seems particularly applicable to home economics education—"Education in a democracy, both within and without the school, should develop in each individual

[1] *Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education*, Bulletin 1918, No. 35, U. S. Office of Education.

the knowledge, interests ideals, habits, and powers whereby he will find his place and use that place to shape himself and society toward ever nobler ends."

During the twenty years of development of home economics in Indiana many important changes have occurred in an effort to reach a desirable goal. Starting ing with simple courses in cooking and sewing—generally designated as a domestic science—it took some time to prove that mere information is inadequate and that skills are not generally acquired in a few laboratory experiences. Gradually the importance of related art and science enriched the program into a broader field of home economics. Yet social aspects of life were in the background until the advent of courses in family relationships and child development called for prerequisites of child psychology and social studies. This broad program remains in operation today and throughout the state is being adjusted to community needs and interests.

In considering details of what is taught at the present time the teacher is well aware of the emergency conditions which surround every family and influence its economic and social development. Low incomes have affected physical health and mental health and have even threatened the home itself. Insecure economic status tends toward loss of self-respect and lower morale and produces individual irritability and family discord. Since the cause of this complexity centers about reduced finances, the home economics program should be directly toward the establishment of a home having acceptable health and decency standards on a limited income. This involves:

1. Serving adequate appetizing meals with minimum waste and reduced expenditure.

2. Renovating clothing, making attractive garments from old ones, and using feed sacks and scraps of materials already at hand where new fabrics were once considered essential.

3. Encouraging social life that is based upon personal contribution to group enjoyment rather than depending upon commercialized entertainment.

4. Contributing personal help on the part of individuals in solving problems of strenuous family living brought about by reduced income.

5. Sharing community work by contributing personal services to welfare agencies that may attempt to relieve distress.

6. Assisting in maintaining a high standard of personal efficiency and assisting in protecting the health of others.

7. Weighing values and satisfactions to be gained by expenditures of time, labor, and money.

8. Stressing problems of the buying consumer.

There are many opportunities for the teacher to contribute to satisfactory living through the content of the home economics curriculum. Relief agencies often suggest vital problems of the community which will fit into the program There is danger of using the classes for mere drudgery; but whenever the task involves added judgement, managerial skill, and right attitudes, it is worthy of consideration. Meeting everyday problems of the home is not broad enough—the vision must extend beyond this. Dr. Kilpatrick in *The Educational Frontier* sets the goal for home economics education when he says, "To prepare individuals to take part intelligently in the management of conditions under which they will live, to bring them to an understanding of the forces which are moving to equip them with the intellectual and practical tools by which they can themselves enter into direction of these forces."

This bring home economics up-to-date and the teachers of Indiana are working toward that goal, nevertheless there is yet a long road to travel before we reach it.

Methods Courses in Teacher Education

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It is generally agreed that an educational program needs to be revised occasionally for the purposes of eliminating certain defects which appear from time to time and of meeting the new conditions brought about by an ever changing social life. It is quite proper that one should view the present teacher education program in Indiana with the eyes of a critic whose chief desire is the improvement of that program. Considerable criticism has already been made and during the last few months, the State Board of Education has appointed an advisory committee to make a thorough study of the present program with the view of recommending needed changes. It has been charged by some critics that the present teacher education program is top-heavy with "methods courses." It is quite evident that a study in this field by those vitally concerned with the education of good teachers for the public schools of the state should be made, and some effort should be made to point out the essential function which such courses serve in the proper education of teachers.

An examination of the present teacher education program in Indiana as operated at the state teachers colleges will reveal the inclusion of three types of so-called methods courses. These courses should not be condemned without a hearing. If a careful study of their aims, values, and content indicates that each provides the prospective teacher with a vital part of his professional education and without unnecessary duplication then surely their presence in the program cannot be condemned on the mere basis of the number of such courses provided.

These so-called methods courses are at present to be found in three divisions of instruction. First, there are the general methods courses given under specific titles such as the psychology of learning, classroom technique, principles of teaching, etc., as given by the department of education; second, there are the special subject matter courses on the teaching of English, etc., given by the subject matter departments; third, the supervised teaching courses, given in the elementary and secondary training schools connected with the colleges. Perhaps there are valid reasons for having this threefold type of professional instruction. At least, the plan or scheme should not be condemned before an analysis of each type is made to determine whether or not each phase contributes a well coordinated and functional part without duplication and that this essential professional training be best secured under the triple division.

To say that an individual is a "born teacher" is true only in so far as his general physical, mental, and social characteristics are readily adaptable to the type of leadership that best influences boys and girls in developing a taste and an aptitude for learning. In like manner, one can speak of an individual as being a "born engineer" or a "born physician." Aside from these innate capacities and characteristics, the individual must acquire his professional education by serious study and practice in the work.

To those long experienced in the field of educating and supervising teachers, it is generally recognized that there are certain knowledges and techniques which are of common use to all teachers, regardless of the subject of specialization which they plan to impart. A study of the mental processes, the laws of learning, the influence of the emotions, interest and will on achievement—coming usually under the title of psychology, educational or applied psychology—can be taught most economically in a course where no effort is made to divide the students into groups of specialization. In fact, it would seem that a better balanced education would result when students of varied intellectual interests were to discuss these factors of

mental growth in common. In similar manner, there are certain principles of classroom management, dealing with the characteristics, interests, and techniques in teaching adolescent children; individual differences and special problems of the subnormal, normal, and genius type child; problems of discipline, co-operation with supervisors, administrators, etc., that benefit those varied intellectual interests when such work is studied in common. The limits of this paper do not permit the writer to extend the discussion on the aims, nature, and values of these general methods courses, which are offered by the department of education. Let it suffice for the writer to say that as a mathematician interested in the education of teachers of mathematics, he recognizes their important place in the program of teacher education. If there is some duplication in these general education courses which could be eliminated let the specialists in this field seek to make the needed revisions. But let no one feel too certain that duplication exists merely because several courses are given in furnishing this essential professional background.

Let one next consider the special methods courses which under the present teacher education program of the state teachers colleges are offered by the special subject matter departments. Each special subject matter department offers one short course in the teaching of that subject in the high school. This course is required of its group of majors in qualifying for a license in that subject. Each department also offers another course for pupils on the two-year elementary curriculum if the departmental subject reaches down in its source to the elementary school curiculum. For example, the department of mathematics offers a special methods course, "The Teaching of High School Mathematics," for its majors on the high school curriculum, and a course, "The Teaching of Arithmetic," for students on the elementary curriculum. In discussing the nature, values, and importance of this type of methods work in the teacher education program, the writer will limit his discussion to the special methods courses in mathematics, but he wishes to call attention to the fact that the same applies with equal force to the other subject matter departments.

As might be expected, the mathematics department staff in a teacher training institution is selected not only on the basis of training in mathematics, both undergraduate and graduate, but also on the basis of experience and success in the teaching of mathematics on both the elementary and secondary school levels in the public schools. A majority of the local staff have also served as critic supervisors of mathematics in teachers college training schools. Their interests are not only in giving their students a sound education in collegiate mathematics, but also in producing teachers of mathematics having skill and professional efficiency. The special methods courses have been organized and designed to include an intensive analysis of the learning steps, the most successful techniques to be employed, and a study of the various methods possible for presenting each of the various sub-units in each of the public school mathematics courses. There are many, not acquainted with the problems confronting the beginning teacher of algebra or geometery, who might honestly question the need for such a detailed analysis of the various algebraic or geometric processes in a high school course, after having completed such work in high school and then having taken advanced work in collegiate mathematics beyond the calculus. To one familiar with the teacher education problems, however, this need is quite clear. It is not so much that the mathematics major has not acquired a knowledge of the fundamental processes and concepts *as* it is that his powers of analysis in picking out graded steps in difficulty for simple and rational presentation are lacking. For example, he may know that a negative number multiplied by a negative number gives a positive product, but he cannot show a beginning freshman that fact in a rational or economic manner. In short, many of the early facts of secondary mathematics which he has learned, have been mastered automatically by the time he has completed his second major, and he has completely forgotten the detailed learning stages through which he went in arriving at those consecutive rationaliza-

tions. These analytical steps and mathematical techniques cannot be well presented in the general methods courses in the department of education for several reasons: (1) the classes are composed of students, a large majority of whom are not specializing in mathematics; (2) the best trained instructors in the field of mathematics teaching are naturally selected for that departmental staff.

The chief difficulty with those not thoroughly acquainted with the subject matter in any given field as taught in the public schools is they are apt to overwork the special technique and detailed analysis required in the many sub-units of such courses. Any college or institution engaged in the education of teachers which failed to plan this technical phase of the special methods work under the direct supervision of the various departmental staffs would seem to be neglecting the opportunity of achieving the best results.

To illustrate this situation in the case of elementary algebra it seems best to present a somewhat limited analysis of one topic in freshman algebra. The topic of *directed numbers* is taken because it comes early in the freshman year and because most adults still recall some of its features. Space will not permit the inclusion of a detailed analysis in presenting even this unit but the main points can be listed as follows:

DIRECTED NUMBERS

I. The Nature of Directed Numbers
   A. When it should be introduced
   B. Methods of illustrating the meaning
      1. Through the use of the thermometer
      2. Time scale (AD and BC)
      3. Sea level (above and below)
      4. Financial status (debts and assets)
      5. Through directions on a map
      6. Class standing (below and above average)
      7. Number scale (above and below zero), etc.
   C. Difficulties involved
      1. Limitations of textbooks
      2. Use of unfamiliar symbols
      3. Why subtraction with negative numbers is most difficult to rationalize
   D. Analysis of steps of difficulty in addition of directed numbers.
      1. Addition of positive numbers
      2. Addition of two negative numbers
      3. Addition of a positive and a negative number
         a. Absolute value of a positive number being the greater
         b. Absolute value of the positive number and negative number being the same
         c. Absolute value of the positive number being the lesser
      4. Generalization leading to formations of rules for procedure
   E. Analysis of steps of difficulty in multiplication of directed numbers
      1. Multiplication of a positive number by a positive number
      2. Multiplication of a negative number by a positive number (a short method of adding negative numbers)
      3. Multiplication of a positive unmber by a negative number (use of the Commutative Law in multiplication)
      4. Multiplication of a negative number by a negative number (use of logical sequence diagram in illustrating its meaning)
   F. Division with directed numbers
      1. Difficult steps similar to those in multiplication but explained as the inverse process of multiplication
   G. Subtraction with directed numbers
      1. Subtraction of two positive numbers
         a. The absolute value of the minuend being the greater
         b. The absolute value of the subtrahend being the greater
      2. Subtraction of two negative numbers
         a. The absolute value of the minuend being the greater
         b. The absolute value of the subtrahend being the greater
      3. Generalization and formulation

of the law of signs in subtraction
4. Subtraction of positive and negative numbers (one each)

H. Important teaching phases in connection with this unit.
1. Proper rate of speed in introducing new features
2. Standards of achievement to be expected
3. Proper types and amounts of drill
4. Diagnosis of difficulties and remedial procedures

Attention is called to the fact that other algebra units of equal importance such as the formula, the linear equation, simultaneous equations, graphs, the fundamental processes in algebra, algebraic fractions, the quadratic equation, verbal problems, powers and exponents, radicals and roots, etc., must be given similar treatment. The same must be done for the various subunits of geometry and advanced courses of mathematics usually offered in the high school. With the special methods class meeting not more that forty-eight times, it will be seen that the mathematics major students spend less than one class period in preparing the analysis and in discussing each of these important units.

Surely it cannot be claimed that too much time is being spent at present in preparing the future teacher of high school mathematics to enter upon the difficult task of presenting this important and rather technical branch of learning to adolescent pupils. In addition to giving these major students a familiarity with the difficulties and problems in presenting his subject to pupils, the course is designed to provide some observation of teaching, training in reporting observations, experience in writing lesson plans, and some knowledge of the trends in the teaching of the subject in the United States and elsewhere. After outstanding teachers of mathematics such as Dr. E. L. Breslich at the University of Chicago, Dr. Raleigh Schorling at the University of Michigan, Dr. W. D. Reeve at Columbia University etc., have spent a lifetime experimenting and discovering better methods of teaching mathematics, surely it is not too much to require a prospective teacher to take a short course in this subject under the best instruction that the college can provide.

In discussing the third division of this methods work, namely, that received in supervised teaching in the training schools, let the writer state that he considers it to be the necessary "rounding out" of a well coordinated and well balanced professional training. When properly planned, it in no way duplicates the previous methods work, nor can it ever properly take the place of such. The previous experience of the writer as a critic supervisor of mathematics in the training school enables him to point out the values as well as the limitations of this important phase of professional education.

Under the present plan of teacher education, a prospective teacher seldom takes more than two courses (twelve weeks each) in supervised teaching. Since most teachers begin their teaching by being assigned work in two or more departments, it is essential that each teacher qualify in two or more subject matter fields if registered on the high school teacher curriculum. If on the elementary curriculum the teacher must be trained in a large number of fields. Thus, the student teacher almost never takes more than one course in supervised teaching in any given major and often gets none in at least one of his majors. During that one term in which he *may* take supervised teaching in mathematics, high school algebra, *or* high school geometry. His work is thus limited to one course in mathematics and that will be intensive work in one-third (twelve weeks) of that year's treatment which the high school class will cover in that limited period. The critic supervisor will have charge of four or five different high school classes and have supervision over a number of student teachers, to say nothing of other school activities. Naturally, the critic supervisor's load is not light, since no one of experience would hold that the aid given by the student teachers offsets the additional effort which the critic must make in keeping the progress of the classes up to

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The Problem of Social Science in the Schools

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The purpose of social science is to provide knowledge, purpose, and technique concerning human beings in association. Its goal is to promote knowledge in such a way that social control may be purposeful and intelligent, that justice and happiness may prevail for individuals, and that the agencies of control may be adaptable to changing conditions.

The agencies of social control are numerous. But those agencies that exercise sovereignty should receive especial attention. While it is a law of history that civilization is continuous, that custom and tradition are strong in any nation, yet there is also the law of continuous change. A sovereign power may accelerate change of custom, and new customs may result in new laws. Changing conditions of technology, of consumption, and of leisure, require that the state accelerate the rate of change of customs, traditions, and institutional behavior. Often customary thinking is as obsolete as the concept of the flatness of the earth, and human happiness may be much marred if the officials of the sovereign state hold such obsolete ideas.

In democracies ideas of change of institutions must wait on public opinion. In business enterprise technical changes may be instituted quickly, even harmfully, with the undelayed approval of the few who control the firm. Business usually has not had to wait for public approval of technological changes or evolution of processes. Decay of once thrifty trades and occupations does not arise out of popular vote. Public approval of social control must be obtained; approval of social change is not demanded. Since the approval of only the few who benefit by proposed technological changes is necessary, social control has fallen behind technological and social changes. Technological changes need not await on the slow process of education; approval of newer methods of social control is largely brought about by education, including all those devices of education not under the control of educational institutions.

Business has been individualistic. To some people social control *seems* to run counter to individualism, for social control considers the ultimate human costs involved, and not merely the cost that the bookkeeper finds in the accounts, such as guide most business policies. It is often difficult for intelligent business men to get the long run human point of view when such view seems to conflict with his customary point of view. His view may be circumscribed by the accounting facts shown for the current period; he may not see the ultimate costs involved. The social science student may see these ultimate costs more clearly than the very intelligent business man, but the latter may be in a position to exercise more control over the view that will prevail.

Of course the teacher of social studies in the schools deals with pupils and not with adults. These pupils come from all walks of life, with various kinds of previous experience. Naturally, most of the pupils of pre-high school age have limited knowledge and experience. They may be bright and capable, but they have not the background to evaluate social institutions and social change. They can learn serially one thing after another, build up a stock of knowledge, and finally have a comprehensive correlated understanding of our institutions. But social science concepts in the lower grades must necessarily be concrete, rather than philosophical. Social science in the grades may be descriptive, but it

may not be very discriminating. In fact, social science must always be descriptive before it can be discriminating. But the social science that matters most is discriminating and critical. One main problem of the teaching of social science in the schools is that of what to teach at the grade levels, at what ages to become discriminating and critical.

The problem of evaluation of our social processes and institutions is a problem for yet another reason. Institutions affect human welfare and human groups and classes. Any change in customary procedure or institutions affects these same groups. Pupils come from all groups, and thus the conflicts of adult group life are vital to the pupils. The problems that are of most concern are controversial. In the schools, if such problems are not handled with discretion (if handled at all), group conflicts will be accentuated, intelligent association policies hindered, and the purposes of the social sciences defeated, as progress in understanding is made through the high school, many of the problems may be tackled. Certainly high school should not be the place where pupils should be isolated from the world of ideas. High school should be more than a club of fellowship. It is not the purpose of high school to incarcerate the pupils so that they may not learn of our institutions as they are. The pupils should learn that racketeering is as much an American institution as the United States chamber of commerce, and should be able to discriminate in the social usefulness of all such institutions.

There are difficulties and dangers in dealing with law and government. It is difficult at times to be truthful about certain units of government without developing disrespect for all law and government. But one can discriminate between good government and certain horribly mismanaged municipal governments. One may feel the worth of good government and still see that modern conditions demand reform of our local governments. One may see the great place political parties play in our government without approving the excesses of the spoils system. One can observe the extreme conservatism of the Supreme Court in dealing with labor disputes, approve the liberal view of congress as expressed in the Norris-LaGuardia Act, and still see the high usefulness of courts. One need not in high school be deaf to the creaking of our governmental machinery, but it helps little in developing a better society to leave the impression that all is wrong. Governments and parents both may be a little old fashioned, in the view of pupils, yet the discriminating pupil may still see the necessity for parents and the usefulness of government.

The problems of social science can never be considered with the same definiteness as can technological problems. The conditions under which a social problem is observed can never be predicted with precision. An experiment attempted by a Republican administration may prove unsuccessful because of world depression. An experiment attempted by a Democratic administration may not be attended by docile and controlled Republicans. The American Bankers Association may promote a thrift program, but the bankers may lend those merchants the most money, who are most effective in getting children and adults to spend their money. The National Educational Association may take under advisement the problem of leisure, but school teachers and others may not be aware that manufacturers of luxury goods may be attempting to provide markets for their goods while at the same time, they may be attempting to get others to accept part time employment or partial unemployment as leisure. How can one be sure that greed may not lurk in the background of charitable measures? How can one be sure of the soundness of a measure when unsocial forces, that may not be controlled, can operate capriciously, greedily, or even maliciously, to defeat the measure? Judgment, rather than precision, is needed in the social science, and judgment requires wide information and multiplex imagination.

Since social control results in financial effects on groups, such groups may attempt to control society in their own interests. The hideous, subtle, and secret,

methods of lobbying, of carrying on publicity, and of controlling education used by certain organized interests, were brought to light a few years ago by the Federal Trade commission. More than three millions of dollars were spent in three years by one of these organized groups. The efforts included the general attempt to suppress the truth by the control of textbooks, control of their authors, control of the publishers, and control of the adopters and users. Such groups have done much to control newspapers. While using money in quantities to control public opinion, such groups oppose progressive legislation and progressive statesmen by attempting to attach odious names to such causes or men. Their vocabulary of abuse includes such terms as radical, communist, anarchist, socialist, Bolshevik, if such will promote their own ends, regardless of how worthy and useful the proposed legislation or cause. The success of the efforts of such groups provides a problem for the social sciences in the schools. One might well read such things as Gruening, *The Public Pays*, in order to be on one's guard against such subtle pressure as noted above.

A few years ago there was a philosophy of education to the effect that the content of curriculum should be determined in the interest of the child. This philosophy, poorly understood but widely quoted and literally applied, still permeates our schools. Just as school administrators have attempted to apply minutely the discredited systems of efficiency to schools, so have the curriculum supervisors adopted *in toto* the discredited policy of individualism. The newer philosophy of social need or the philosophy of planning an ordered society is being heard occasionally, but the schools are not yet fully alive to its possibilities. The social sciences can be more effective when the background of understanding and technique which these sciences provide can be supplemented by and integrated with the modern philosophy of education. Yes, we need to understand a child's capabilities and interests; we need much more to know his society with him as a part of it; his needs in society, and to interest him in his undiscovered needs. A great problem of the social sciences is to go beyond diffusion of the body of knowledge of the social sciences, and develop the child's interest in those phases of society that make for citizenship. The problem is not to find merely what a child is interested in; it is to develop interests where they should be, and to develop social attitudes and understandings of society and social forces.

Has Raup stated this last problem well in saying, "Many a teacher of today went through college with hardly a respectable course in social science. In the teachers college or normal school he has learned only bits of a badly warped psychology and a few tricks of the trade of teaching the subjects which he has taught. He has been taught not to think, indeed the less he thinks about crucial matters the less trouble he will give his superintendent. He can be heir to all this and still be rated high. Such cannot continue to the prevailing conception of the teacher. For we are beginning now to see what the profession to fulfill its own integrity is compelled to do. The group of persons who are charged with critical appraisal of the modern American community must be of the highest quality, with a most thorough and vital educational experience of their own."

[1]William K. Kilpatrick, et al, *The Educational Frontier* (New York: The Century Company, 1933).

Methods Courses In Teacher Education

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normal. In fact, most trained critics could conduct those classes with less effort and greater efficiency if unhampered by novice assistance. Yet the critic realizes that his work is twofold: to do demonstration teaching and aid the student teacher in acquiring sound classroom techniques. Obviously, however, the critic cannot find time to oversee the student's instruction in all phases of mathematics teaching. The economic solution to this problem is not "more quarters" of supervised teaching as some have advocated. Experience is an expensive teacher and there is a limit to be reached which might be called the "point of diminishing returns." To give a prospective teacher a complete professional education by means of supervised teaching would require him to do supervised teaching practically three quarters in each of the high school years. It is time for both those engaged in educating teachers and school administrators to recognize that the beginning teacher's education must be continued under close supervision for a number of years after he leaves the college.

Perhaps some comment should be made on the fact that a student majoring in two or more departmental fields will take at least two special methods courses under the present plan. It is for this reason that some are inclined to feel that the present program is top-heavy in methods courses. There are certain conditions in teacher education which must be faced. One is, practically all beginning teachers receive their first appointment in small schools where it is imperative that they be prepared to teach in two or more departmental fields. While this condition exists, there is no logical escape from additional special methods courses if excellent teaching is desired. There is little similarity in the analysis of units in high school mathematics and those of English, history, or biology. To omit the special methods courses, which cover the technical procedures in the teaching of the specific subjects, in any case, would be the greatest blunder that could result from a revision in the present teacher education program.

In summarizing this article in the defense of methods courses in teacher education program let it be said:

I. The theory underlying the methods work as now given under three coordinating departmental groups in the state teachers colleges is sound.
   A. The foundation in psychology and a study of general principles and techniques of classroom management by the department of education.
   B. Training in the analysis of subject matter units, specific techniques for presentation, with diagnosis of difficulties and types of remedial instruction by the subject matter departments.
   C. Introductory experience in teaching intensive subject matter units to elementary and secondary school pupils under departmentally trained supervisory critics.

II. The greatest possibility for improvement would seem to lie in bringing about better coordination between the three groups now giving the methods work.
   A. Through elimination of unnecessary duplication within those groups offering such courses.
   B. Through mutual recognition and assignment of that part of the methods work which logically falls to a given division best qualified to give that training.

Around the Reading Table

MITCHELL, ELMER AND BERNARD S. MASON. *The Theory of Play.* A. S. Barnes and Company, New York, 1934. 547 pp.

The authors of this new book began their work with the intention of revising a very well known text in the field of physical education, *The Theory of Organized Play*, by Wilbur P. Bowen and Elmer D. Mitchell. Since the publication of *The Theory of Organized Play* in 1923, Dr. Bowen's death has occurred. The authors of the new book found that so many changes had taken place and so much recent research had been done in the field and in allied fields that to meet the need for a thoroughly up-to-date book dealing with current play, recreation, and general leisure-time problems, a completely rewritten book was necessary.

The subject matter of the book follows four lines of thought, and may be briefly outlined as follows: Part I, under the general topic, historical backgrounds, deals with play throughout the ages, and the modern play movement; Part II, the theory of play, deals with theoretical explanations of play, definition, classification, and the influence of age and sex on play; Part III, the need for play, discusses the need for play in modern life, the physical benefits of play, play and mental growth, play and character formation, play and citizenship; Part IV, administration of play, deals with the various agencies which promote play, the public, semi-public, and commercial, and with the organization and administration of public recreation, the play center, boys' and girls' clubs, summer camps, school athletics, and summer playgrounds.

While the book is essentially a text for students in the field of recreation or physical education, the authors, as they explain in the preface, have considered play as an integral and vital part of the general social movement. They have given us a work which should be of interest to many groups not primarily concerned with the direct conduct of recreation programs, but interested in a theoretical understanding of the social and educational significance of play. It is a stimulating and helpful contribution to the literature of this field.

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SMITH, HENRY LESTER, AND HAROLD LITTELL. *Education in Latin America.* American Book Company, New York, 1934. 411 pp.

This book is one of the *American Education Series* and is intended for students of comparative education in colleges and teachers colleges. Its aim is to show the part Latin America is playing in the great educational world and to give some idea of the future contribution which these countries promise to make in this field.

Each of the twenty chapters deals with a separate country according to this general plan: background of education, educational administration and control, elementary education, secondary education, teachers and teacher training institutions, special types of educational activity, higher education, and, finally, a concluding summary. At the close of each chapter questions and problems point out the relative educational aims in the different Latin-American republics, and a comparison of their systems with those of the United States.

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SHARMAN, JACKSON R. *Introduction to Physical Education.* A. S. Barnes and Company, New York, 1934. 310 pp.

Introduction to Physical Education by Jackson R. Sharman, formerly state director of physical education of Alabama and now associate professor of physical education at the University of Michigan, is a very helpful book for the beginning student of physical education or the classroom teacher who needs to know something of that field. It is helpful to teachers of physical education as a comprehensive survey of the history, objectives, methods, psychology, and philosophy of physical education. Its chief value here lies in the fact that the student of physical education may see the details and ramifications of the field of physical education as a whole.

The high spots of the program of health are reviewed in excellent fashion. The author includes health instruction in this book because he says "in many schools it is probably true that the teachers of physical education are the best prepared teachers for this work . . . This is not an established fact, but the practical situations in many states require that the same teacher give instruction in both health and physical education."

In Chapters XV and XVI, the problems of inter-scholastic and inter-collegiate athletics are presented through a summary of the studies made in this division of the program of physical education. The comments on championships are especially interesting.

The last chapter is devoted to a presentation of physical education as a vocation. Professional preparation, certification, ethics, and similar topics are considered. No attempt is made to treat any one intensively. In fact, no phase of the field in

physical education is treated intensively throughout the book. The volume is truly an introduction.

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Indiana State Teachers College

REMMERS, H. H. "Exemption from College Semester Examinations as a Condition of Learning." Studies in Higher Education XIII, *Bulletin of Purdue University*, Vol. XXIV, No. 3, November, 1933.

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